Pain Physiology Pain Pharmacology

Prof Michael Veltman MBBS FANZCA FASE University of Notre Dame

Director of Anaesthesia Deputy Director of Medical Services Joondalup Health Campus



Pain

Definitions Physiology Pharmacology

Chronic Pain

Pathophysiology Pharmacology



What is pain

Pain is an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with or described in terms of tissue injury.

Has to have an emotional component.
 Has a sensory component

Nociceptive Pain

Acute inflammatory pain
Associated with tissue injury or potential injury

Nociception is not necessarily pain
 Has to have an emotional component

Role of nociception



How did this evolve?
 Reflexes
 Nociception
 Pain
 Anxiety

Pain Physiology

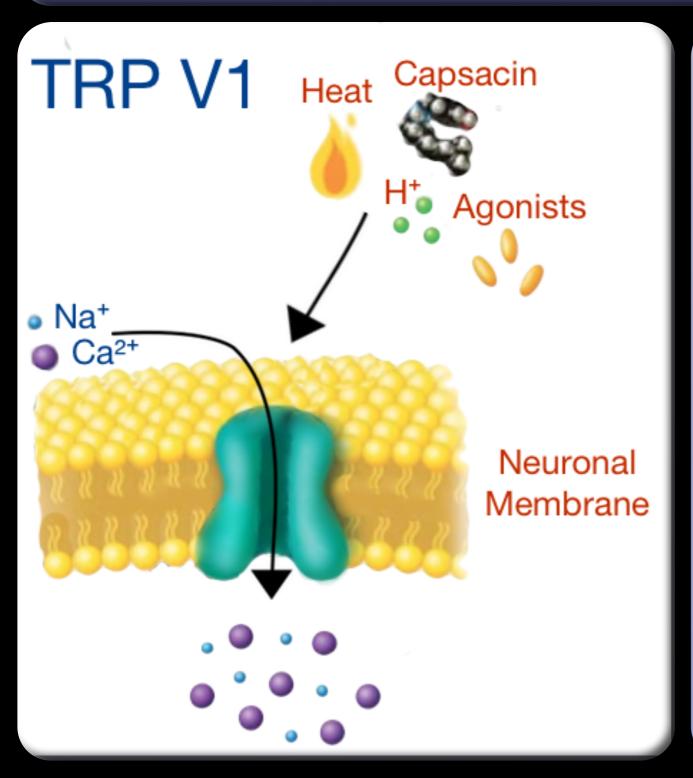
Pain Pathways



Descartes (1596-1650) had a good summary:

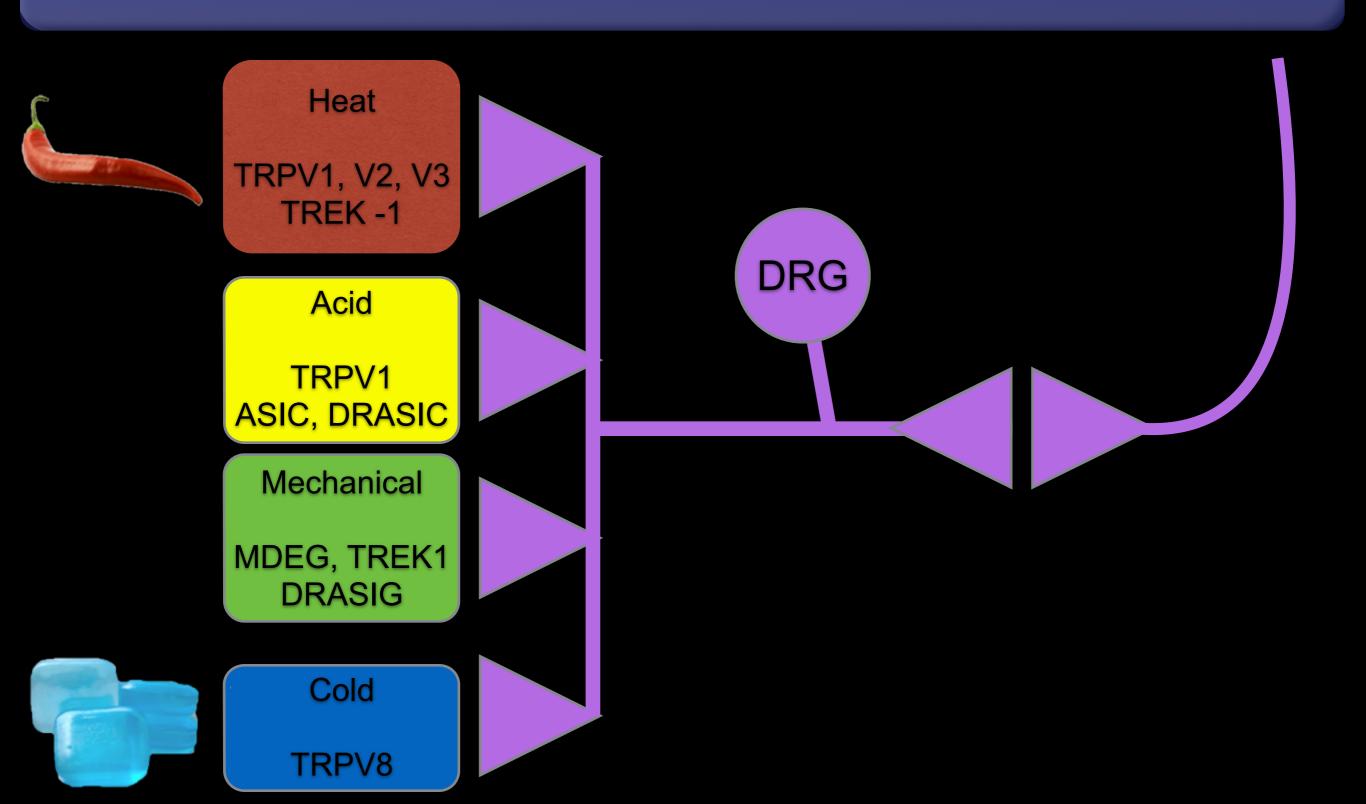
- Tissue injury
- Signal goes to spinal cord
- Signal travels to brain
- Pain is sensed
- But it is a little more complex than this

What are the pain sensors?



Specialized peripheral sensory neurons. Designed to detect tissue injury High threshold sensors Temperature > 40 Celcius Temperature < 15 Celcius</p> Pressure Chemical sensors Narrow dynamic range

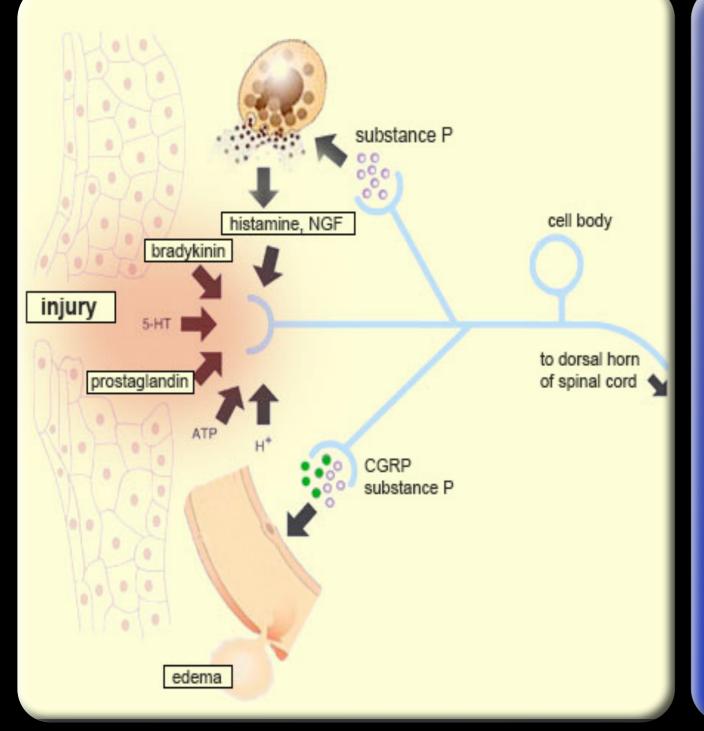
Pain Sensors



Sensitisation

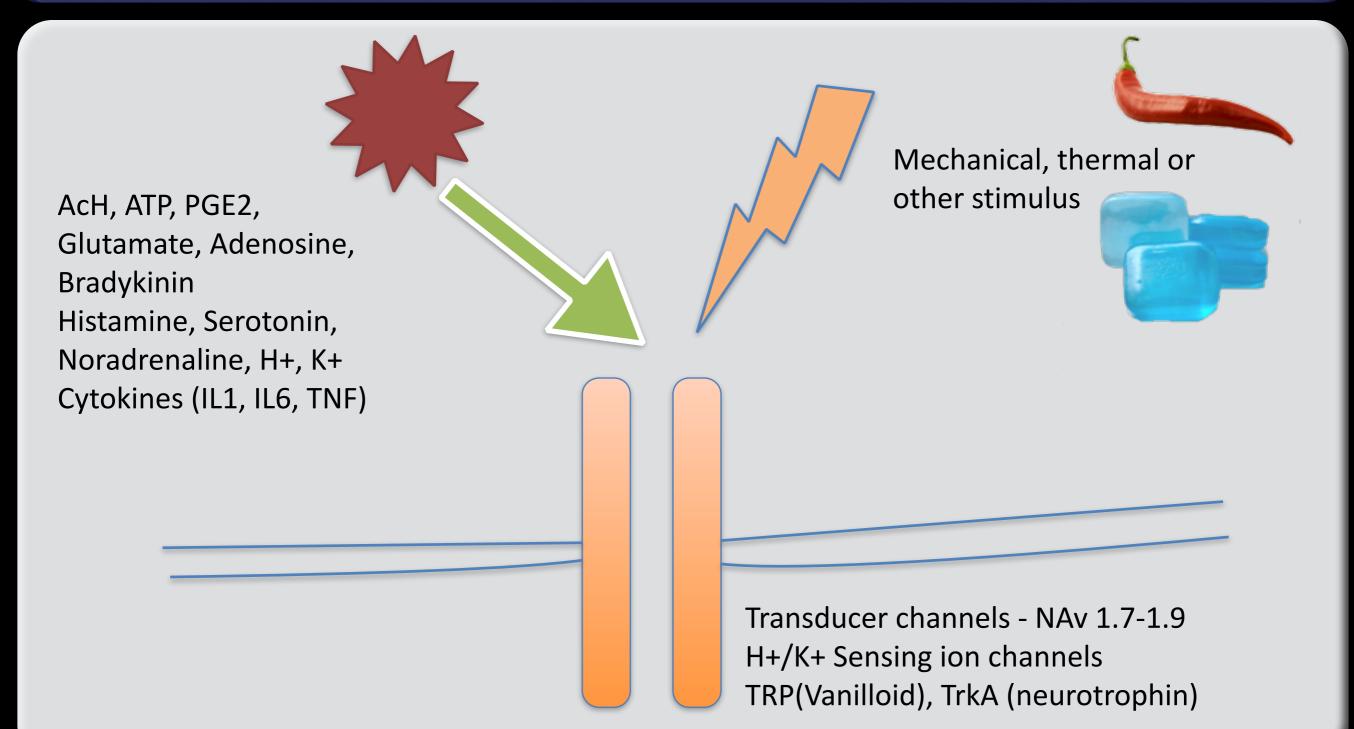
- Hyperalgesia
 - An increase in pain for a painful stimulus
- Allodynia
 - A painful sensation in response to a non painful stimulus

Peripheral Sensitisation



Due to inflammatory mediators Prostaglandins Bradykinin Histamine Serotonin ATP • Acid (H^+)

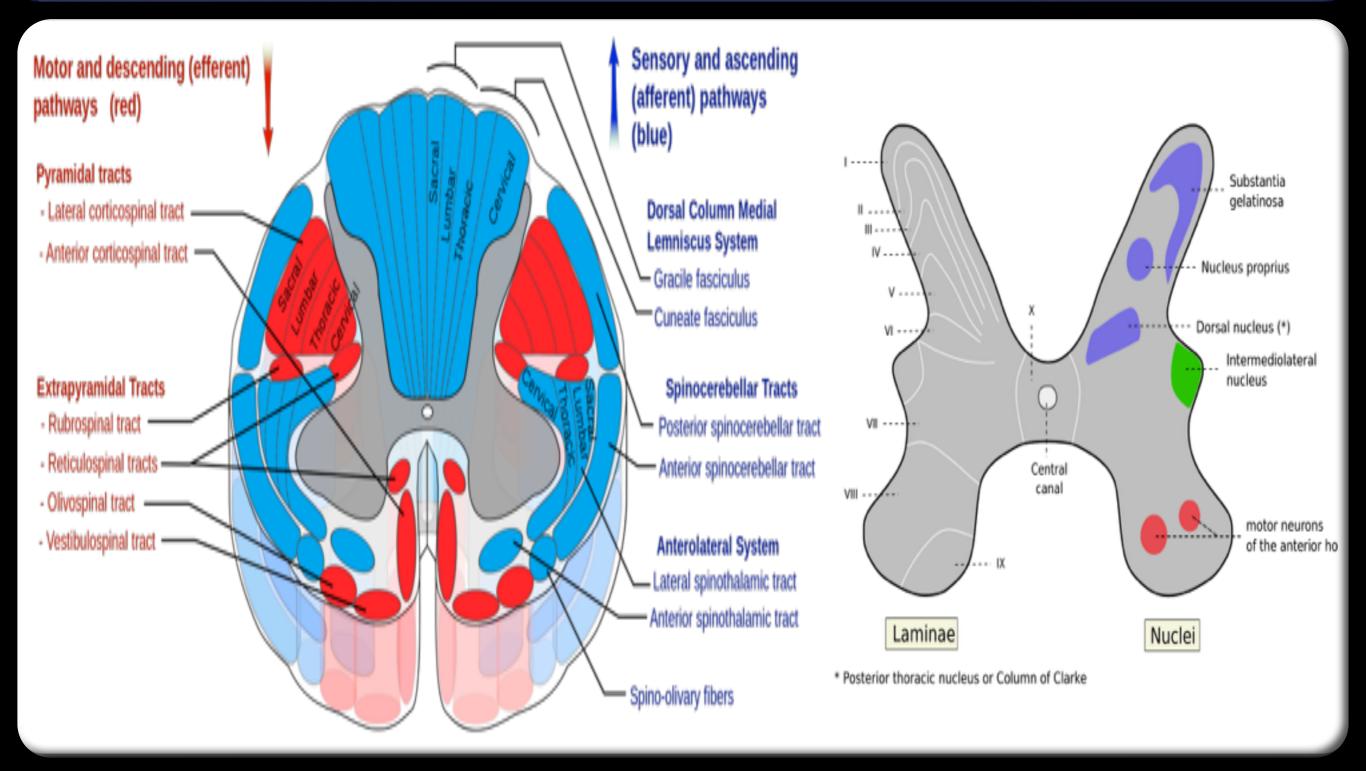
Nociception



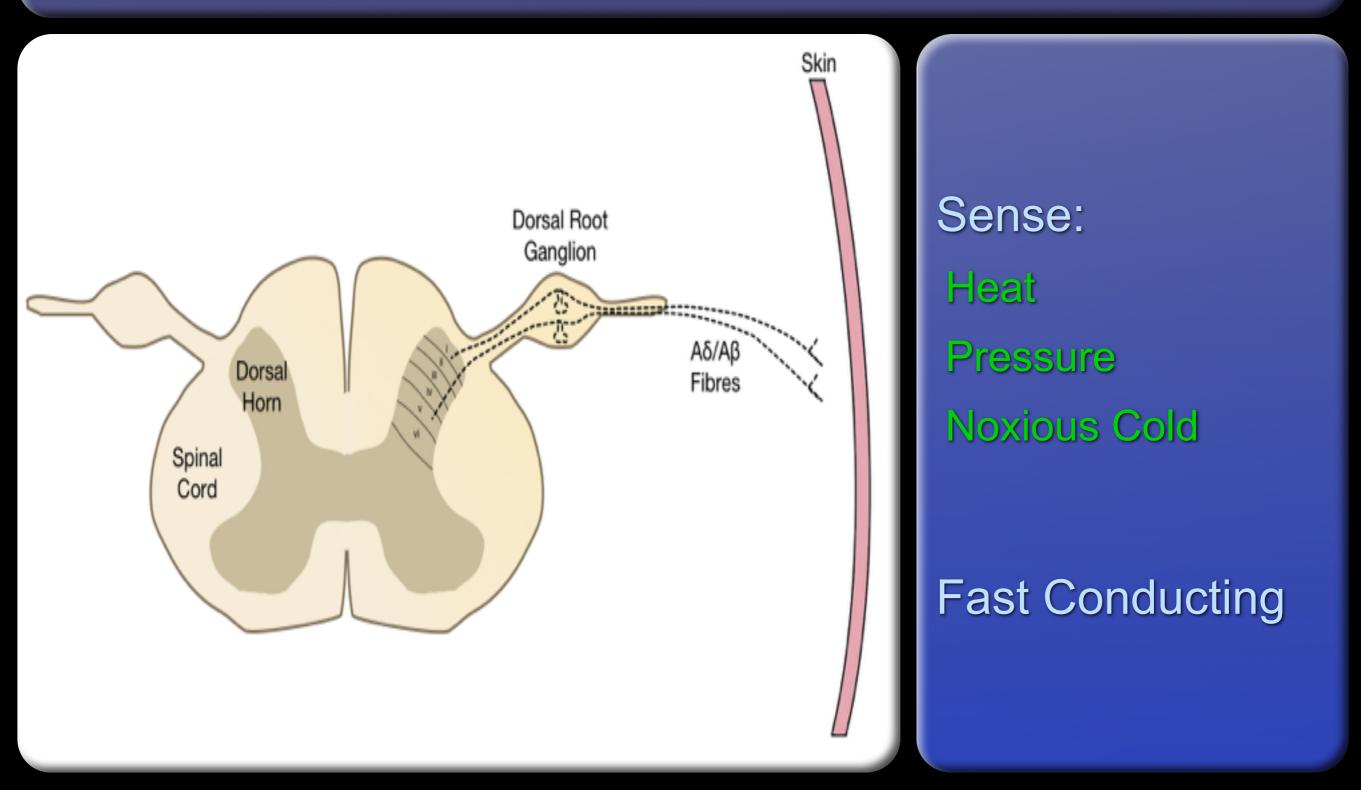
Conduction of signals

Fibres	Αδ	С	Αβ	
Threshold	Low & High	High	Pathological	Nociception ≠ Pain Aδ - Fast Pain C - Slow pain
Stimulii	Thermal Mechanical	Thermal Mechanical Chemical	Mechanical Light Touch	
Diameter	2-5 µm	0.5-2 µm	5-10 µm	
Conduction Velocity	10-30 m/s	0.5-2 m/s	30-60 m/s	

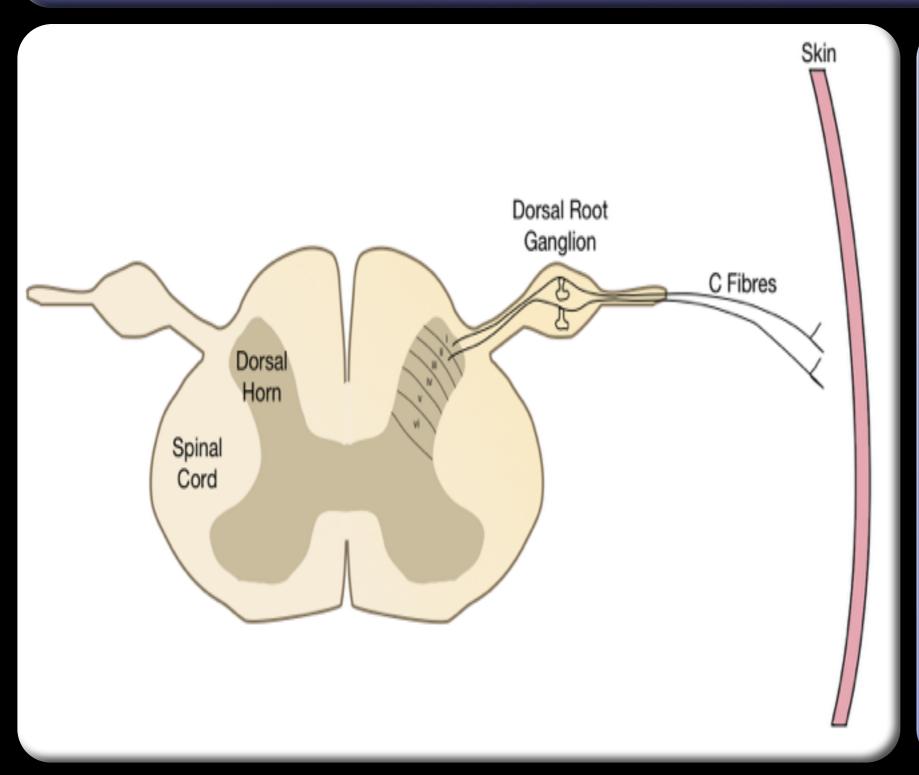
Spinal pathways. This all looks rather complex



Aδ Fibres



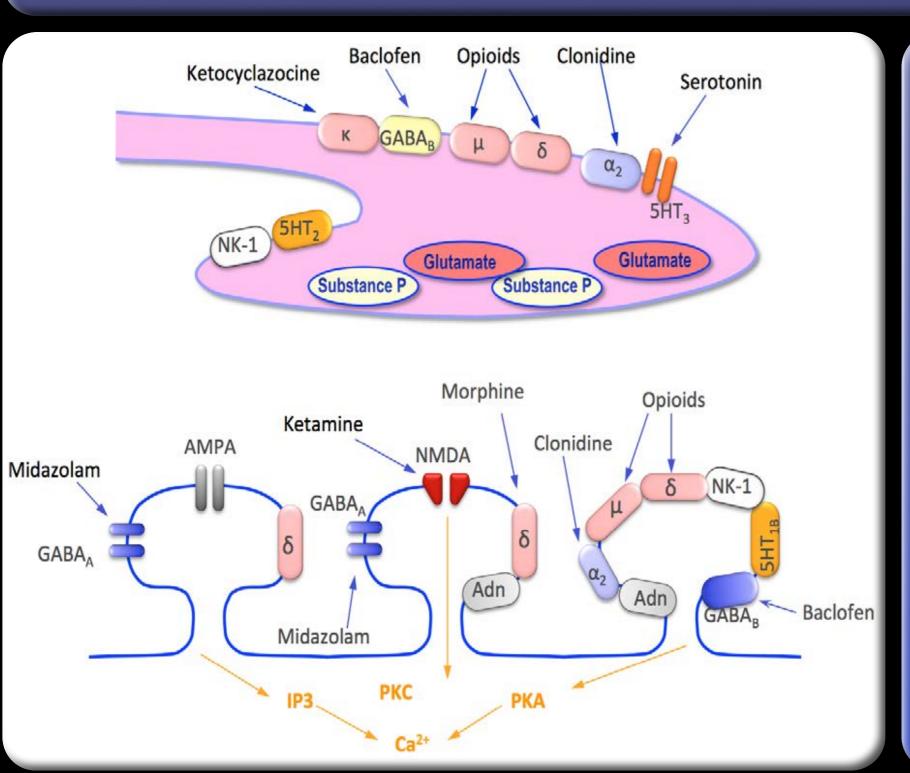
C Fibres



Sense: Thermal (hot/cold) Mechanical Chemical

Slow conducting

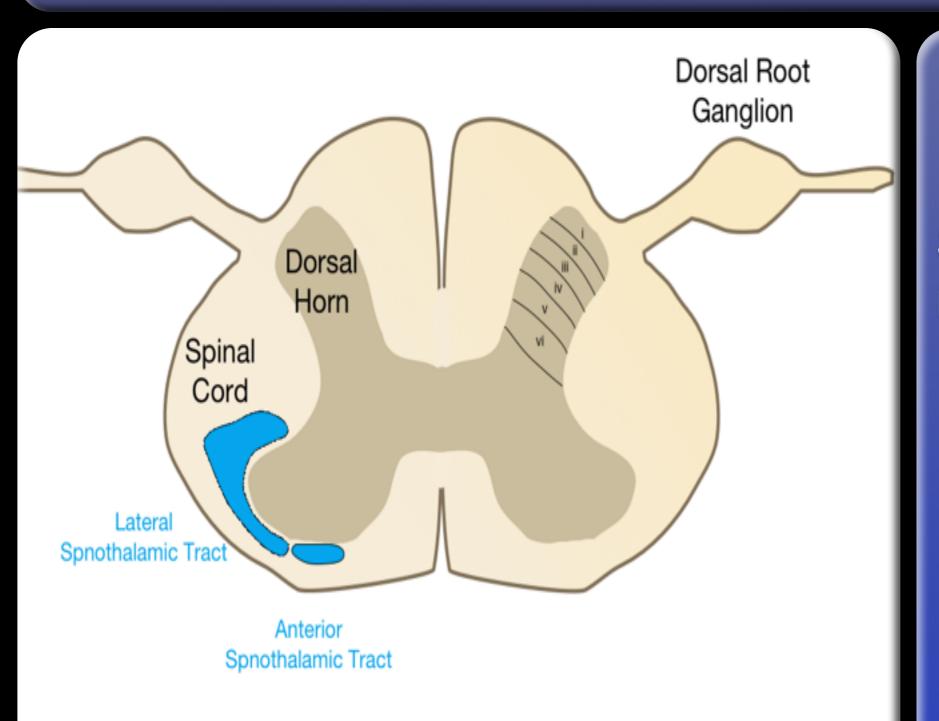
What happens in the lamina?



Transmission across synapse 1st order neurons -> Transmitter 2nd order neurons

The most important transmitter is glutamate

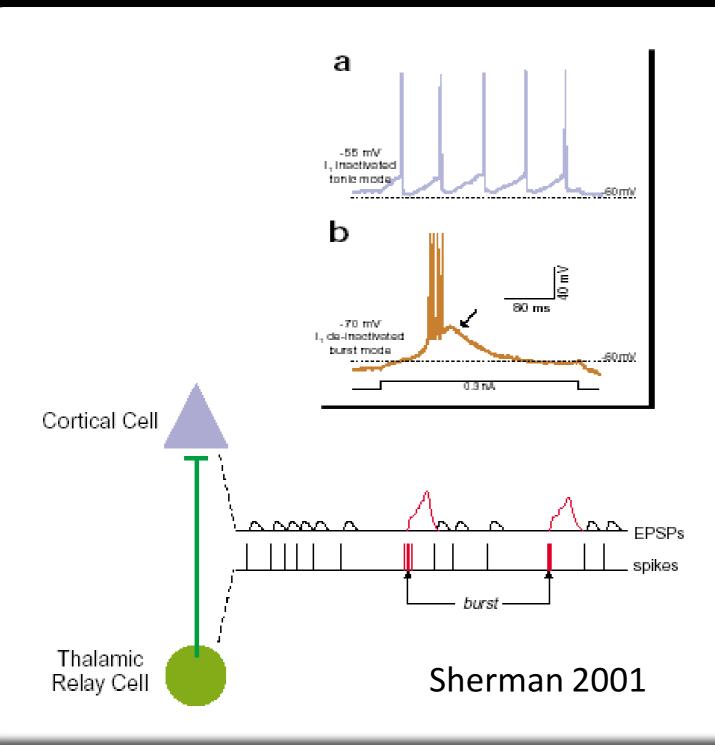
Transmission to Brain



Second order neurons

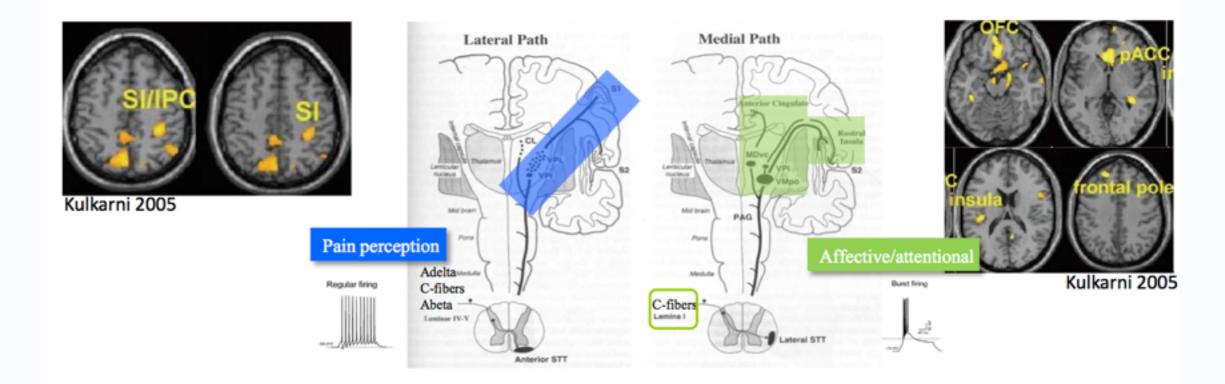
Signals cross over Lateral Spinothalamic tract Anterior Spinothalamic tract

Signalling of pain



Burst mode is signal detector Tonic is feature detector Sherman 2001 Cooper 2006 Burst has a nonlinear response Lisman 1997 Sherman 2001

Two Pain Pathways

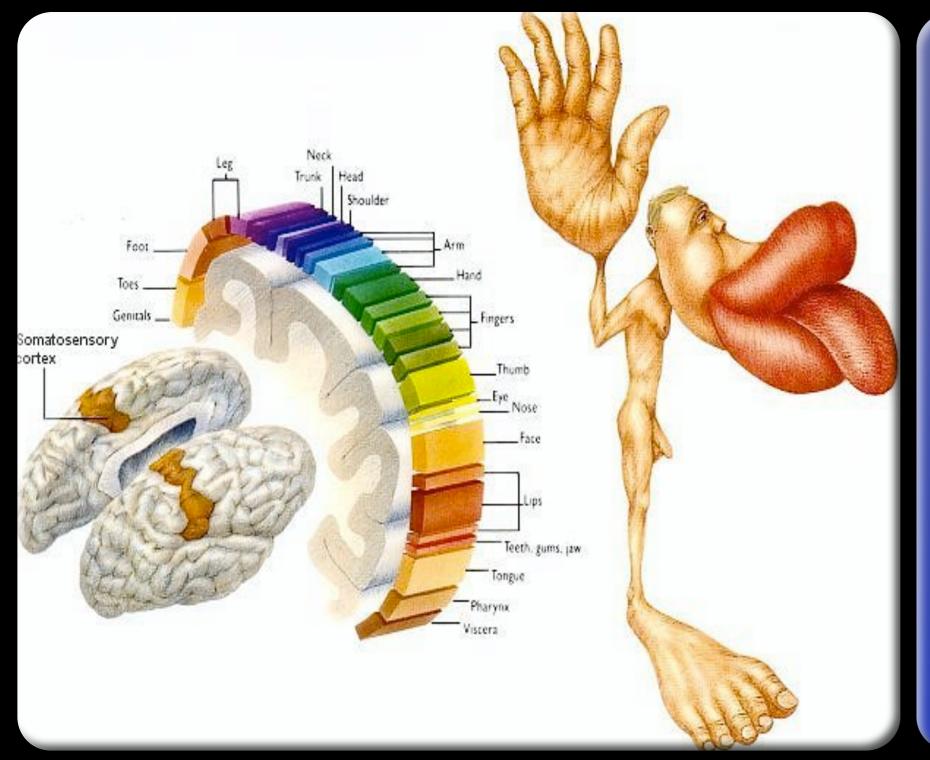


Lateral System (Pain Perception)

WDR neurons Firing in tonic mode Lamina I, V-VI Medial System (Affective)

Nociceptive neurons Fire in burst Lamina I

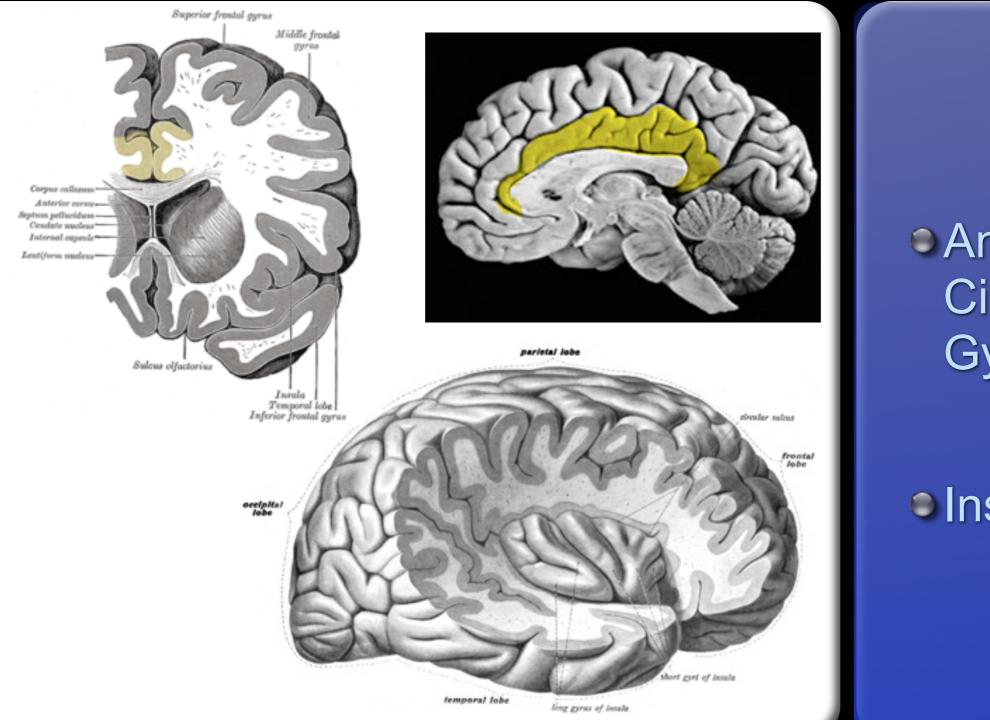
Somatosensory Cortex



Sensory Homonculus S1 S2 Parietal Lobe

Post central gyrus

Emotional Response



Anterior Cingulate Gyrus

Insula

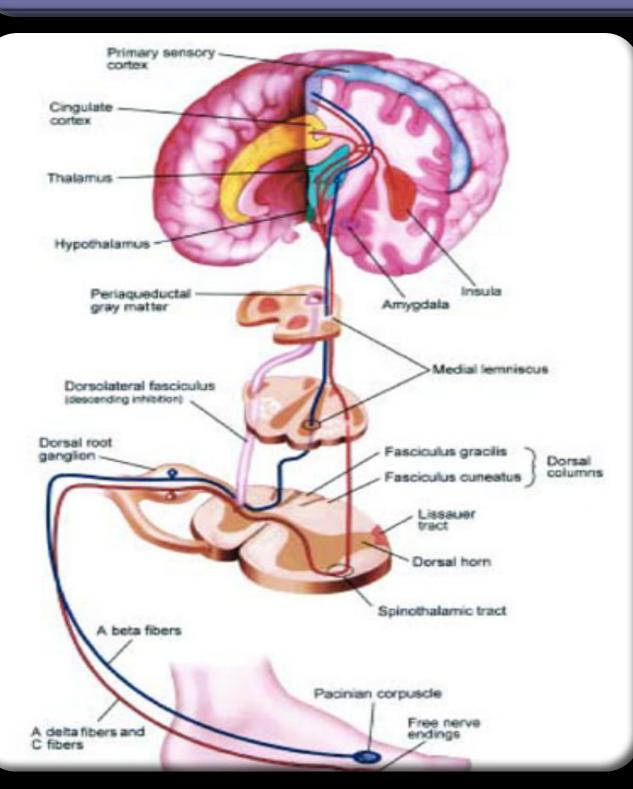
Descending Noxious Inhibitory Controls

Neurons in the dorsal horn are wide dynamic range

Can be inhibited by descending pathways

Reduced DNIC is associated with various pain conditions

DNIC Dampens the signals



 Periaquaductal Grey Matter regulates this downward signalling
 Dorsolateral Furniculus

Mediators include
 Noradrenaline
 Serotonin



Placebos and Pain

In pain, the placebo effect isn't a placebo
There is a biological basis for this
If the pain gets better, its a treatment
Makes treatments harder to assess

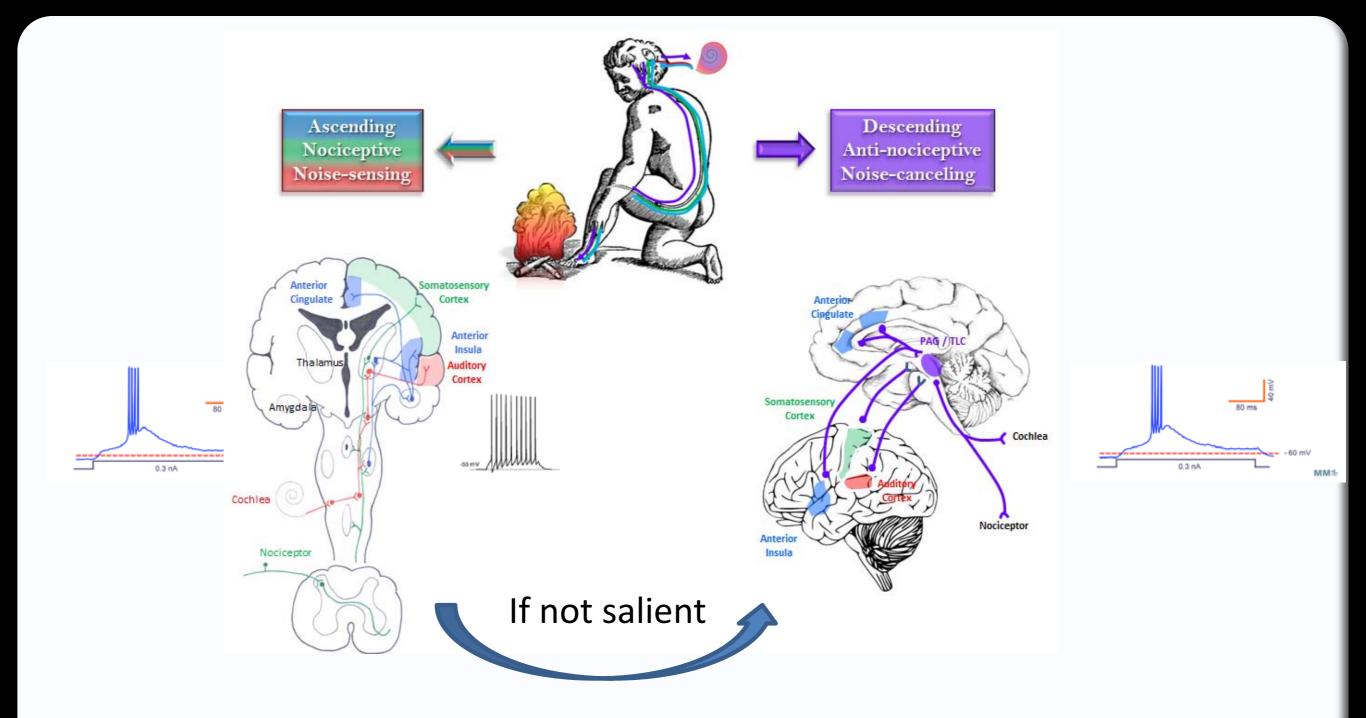
Probably uses same mechanisms as acupuncture, hypnotherapy

Nocebo

From latin "I shall harm"

- An inert substance that creates harmful effects
- Has significance in pain medicine
 - People withdraw from placebo arm of drug trials

Overview of pain pathways



Pain Pharmacology

Acute Pain Management



Nociceptive pain
 Emergency departments
 Acute post surgical pain
 General practice
 Usually traumatic

Stepped approach

Paracetamol

- Non steroidal anti inflammatory drugs
- Opiates
 - Tramadol, Tapendatol, Buphrenorphine
 - Hydromorphone, Morphine, Fentanyl, Oxycodone, Pethidine
- Adjuncts

Paracetamol

Effective, safe (< 4g/day), oral or IV
 Ceiling effect limits benefit for severe pain
 Analgesic and antipyretic
 Reduce dose with liver dysfunction

NSAID's and Coxib's

NSAID's

- Aspirin
- Diclofenac, Naproxen, Ibuprofen, Indomethacin, Meloxicam.
- Coxib's
 - Celecoxib, Parecoxib

NSAID's

Inhibit cyclo-oxygenase (COX-1 & COX-2)
Reduced synthesis of prostaglandins
COX-1 inhibition causes many side effects
Gl upset
Asthma

COX-2 inhibition

Celecoxib (orally), Parecoxib (intravenous)
 Analgesia, antipyretic effects
 Renal impairment (?)
 Myocardial infarction (Rofecoxib/"Vioxx")

Tramadol

Atypical opiate ●40% opiate 40% noradernergic reuptake inhibition 20% serotonergic reuptake inhibition Very good safety profile Side effects

Nausea



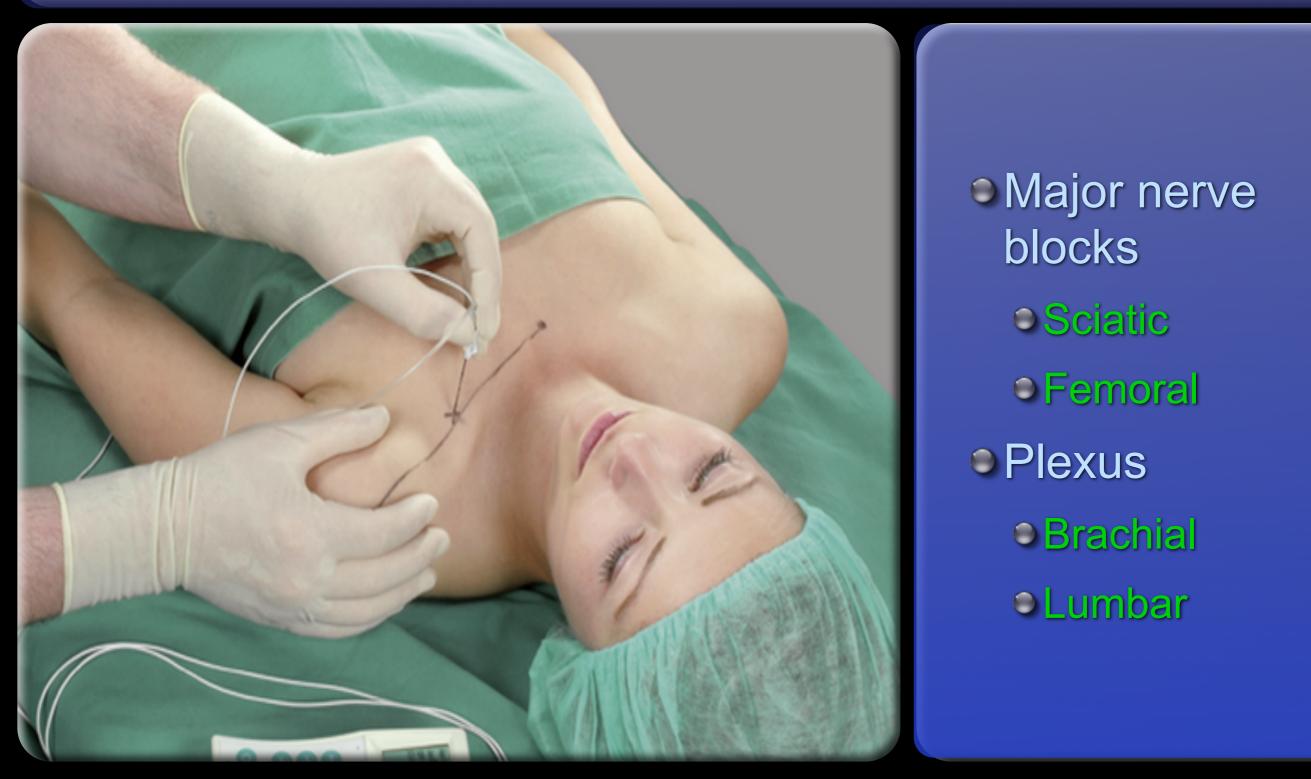
Very useful in acute pain
Best reserved for severe pain
Oral or parenteral (IV)
Mechanism
Side effects
Respiratory depression, constipation, nausea

Nerve blockade

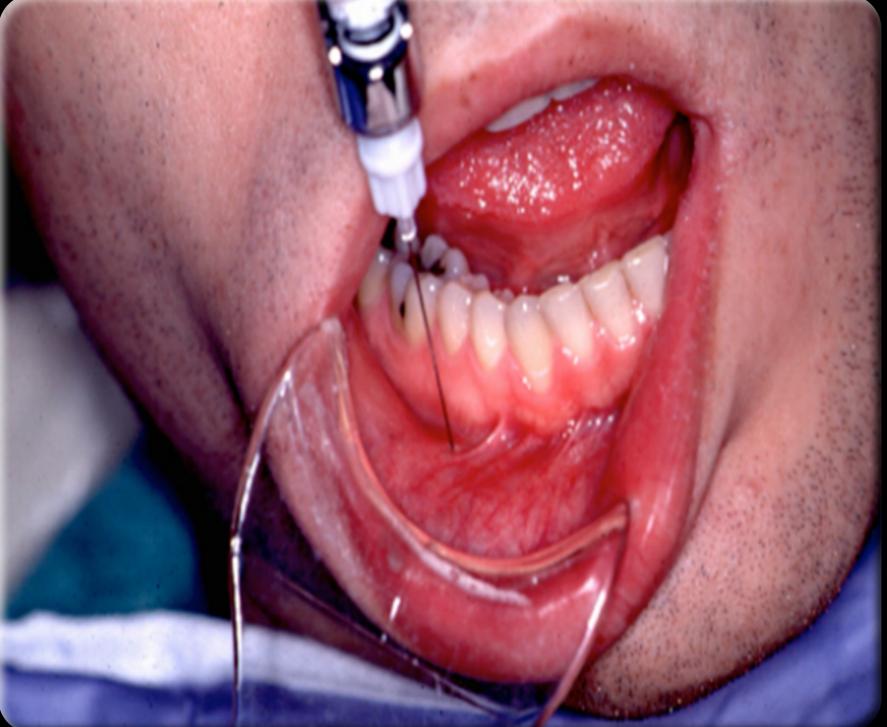


Central
 Neuraxial
 Epidural
 Spinal

Nerve Blockade



Local Infiltration



 Direct to tissues
 Peripheral nerve blocks



Chronic Pain

Neuropathic Pain Sensitisation

Hyperalgesia

Allodynia

Hyperpathia

Neuropathy

An injury or disease of the neurone
 Implies loss of function (usually motor)

Neuropathic Pain

- A disease of the somatosensory system that leads to pain perception
 - Peripheral nerve injury
 - Central pain states

Hyperalgesia

Increased sensitivity to pain
 Painful stimuli hurt more
 Is part of sensitisation
 Can affect different modalities
 Cold/ Hot/ Pinprick

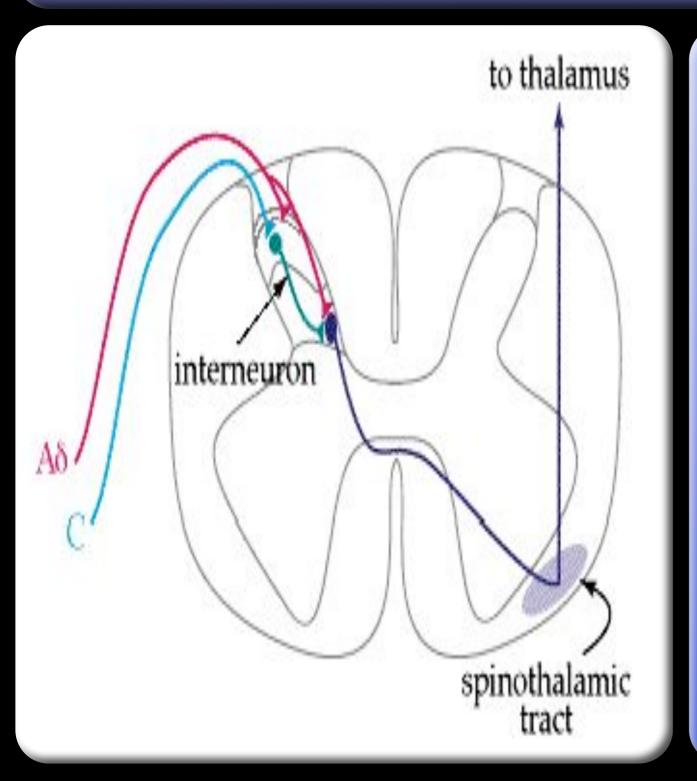
Allodynia

Non painful stimuli cause pain
 Due to sensitisation
 Can be felt in multiple modalities
 Hot/ Cold/ Light touch/ pinprick

Hyperpathia

Summative response to stimuli causing increasing pain.

Central Sensitisation



Amplification of pain perception despite normal peripheral nociception.

Central sensitisation is associated with dorsal horn in spinal cord.

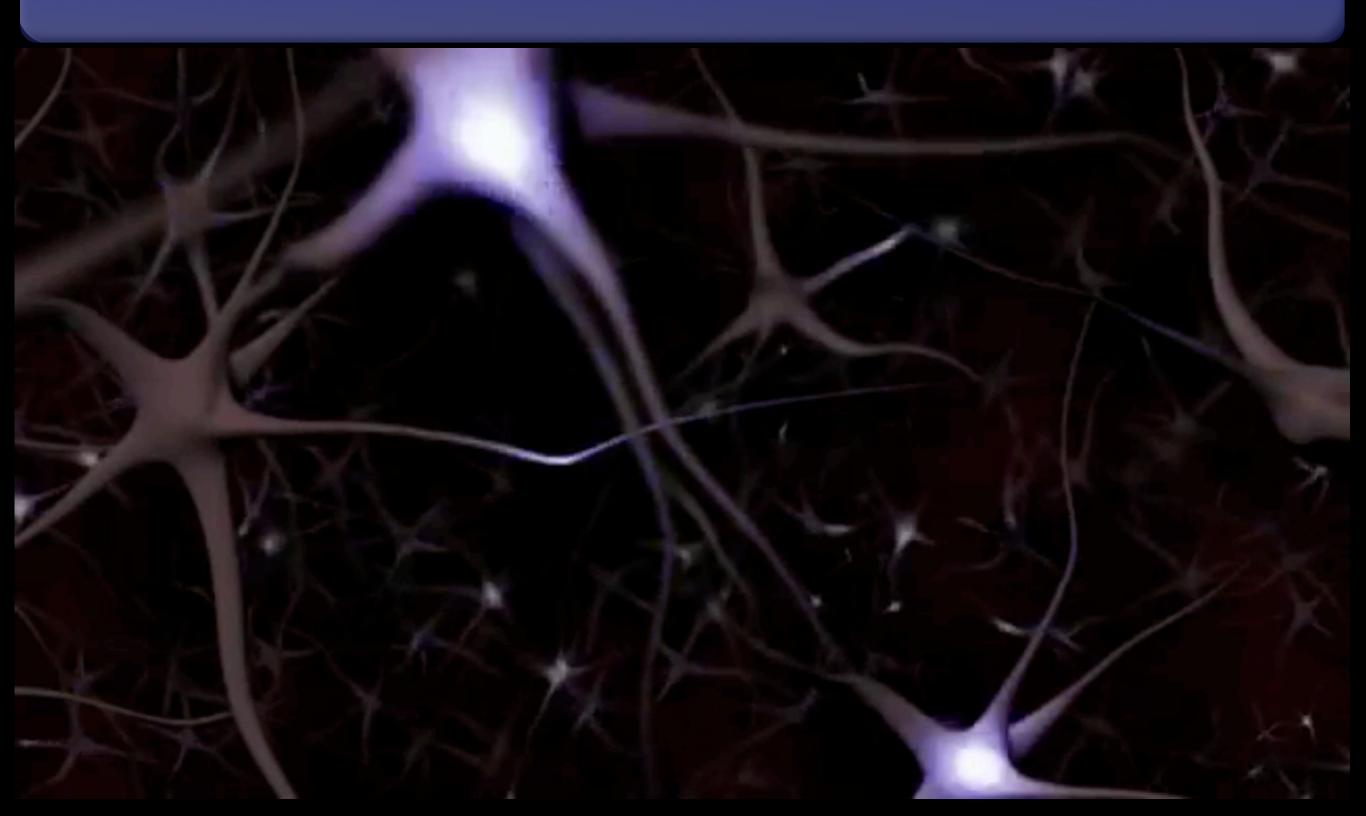
Glutamate is a major mediator of this

Chronic Pain & Glia

Glia Overview

What are Glia?
Astrocytes
Microglia
How do glia influence neurons?

Neuronal Activity



Neurons don't float

10% of cells in the brain are neuronal
90% are glia.

- Astrocytes
- Microglia
- Satellite Glial Cells
- Others (Oligodendrocytes, Ependymal cells)
- Glia aren't just scaffolding

Immunology and the brain

Brain modifies the immune system
 Direct connections to immune organs (spleen)
 Hormonal regulation - eg via cortisol
 Immune system modifies the brain
 Microglia & Astrocytes

Brain to immune connection

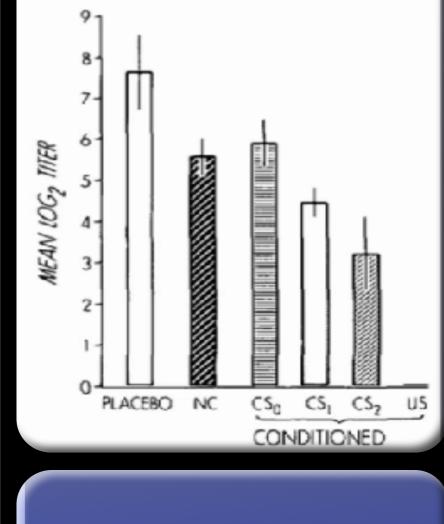
Psycho-immunology (Solomon 1960's)

- Suggested that psychiatric disorders influenced the immune system
- Shunned by scientific community

Taste conditioned immunosuppression

TABLE 1. Experimental Treatments

Group	Day 0				Day 3		Day 6	
	Drnk. Soln.	Inj.	Subgroup	Ν	Drnk. Soln.	lnj.	Drnk. Soln.	Inj.
Conditioned								
(N= 67)	Saach.	CY	CS.	11	Sacch	Sal	HiO	-
				9	H ₂ O	-	Sacch	Sal
			CS ₀	10	H ₂ O	Sal	H ₂ O	_
				9	H ₂ O	-	H ₂ O	Sal
			US	10	H ₂ O	CY	H:O	_
				9	H ₁ O	_	HiO	CY
			CS ₂	9	Sacch	Sal	Saach	_
Nonconditioned								
(N=19)	H/O	CY	NC	10	Sacch	Sal	H _i O	-
				9	H ₂ O		Sacch	Sal
Placebo								
(N=10)	H ₂ O	Placebo	P	10	H ₂ O	-	H ₂ O	_



1975Ader et al

Psychosomatic Medicine Vol. 37, No. 4 (July-August 1975)

Implications of brain to immune signalling

If your brain controls your immune response

- Placebo effects?
- Disease progression (eg cancers)
- Comorbidities
 - Diseases (eg depression)
 - Drug therapies (eg opiates)

Central Immune Signalling

Neuroinflammation is an extreme example

- Trauma
- Injury
- •MS
- Stroke
- Tumours

Immune to brain communication

Tells you when you are sick.
 Cytokines communication with the brain
 Interleukin 1β and TNF-α both do this

Astrocyte Functions

Blood brain barrier

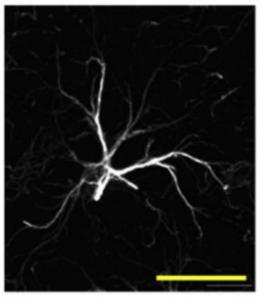
- Synaptic regulation
- Nutrient supply to neurons
- Immune signalling
- Calcium waves

Astrocytes

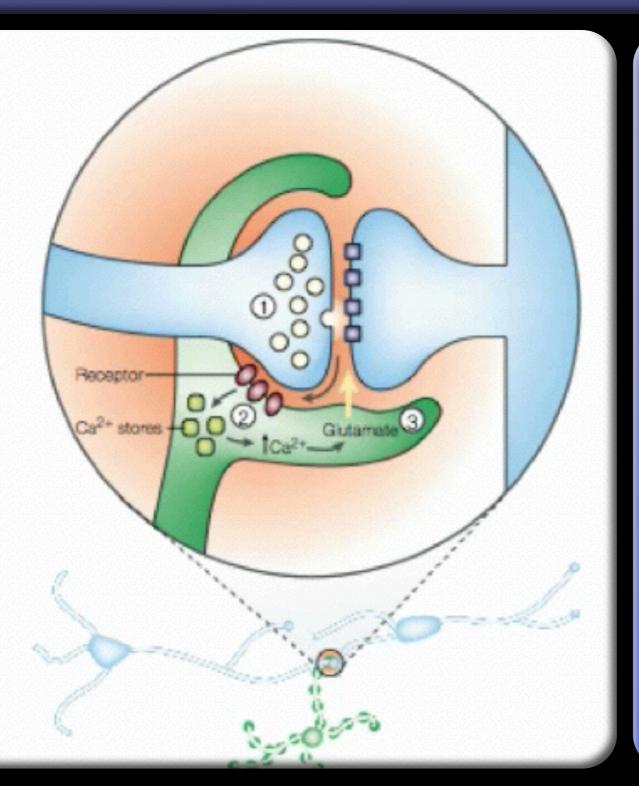
Human

Rhesus monkey

Mouse

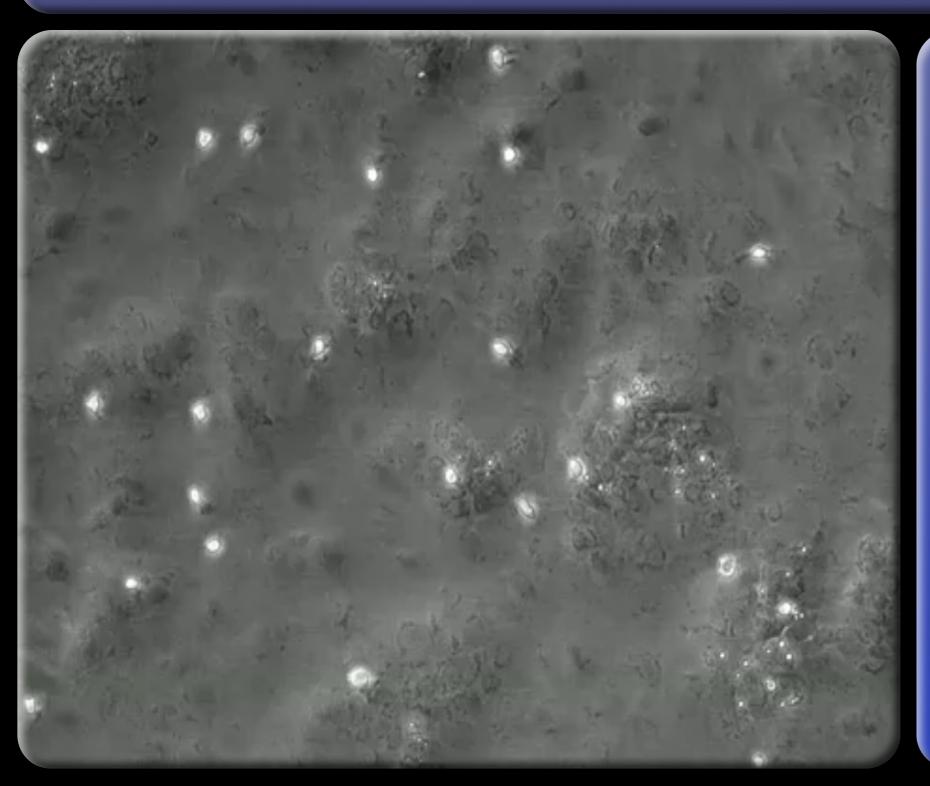


Astrocytes



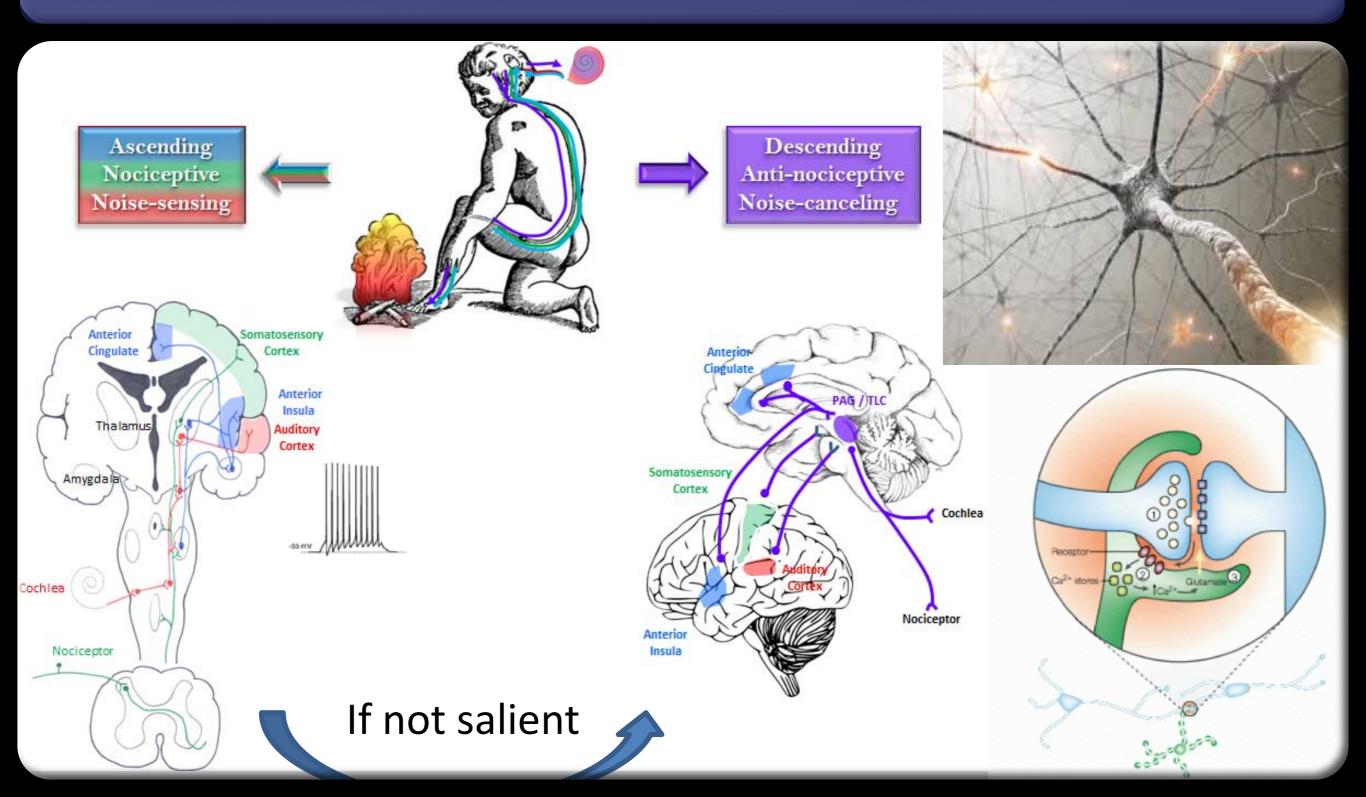
The tripartite synapse
Astrocytes modify the transmission of signals
Glutamate take up by
GLAST
GLT-1

Microglia



Constantly survey the brain Touch every part of the brain 3x / hour Rapidly respond to injury





Neuro-immunopharmacology

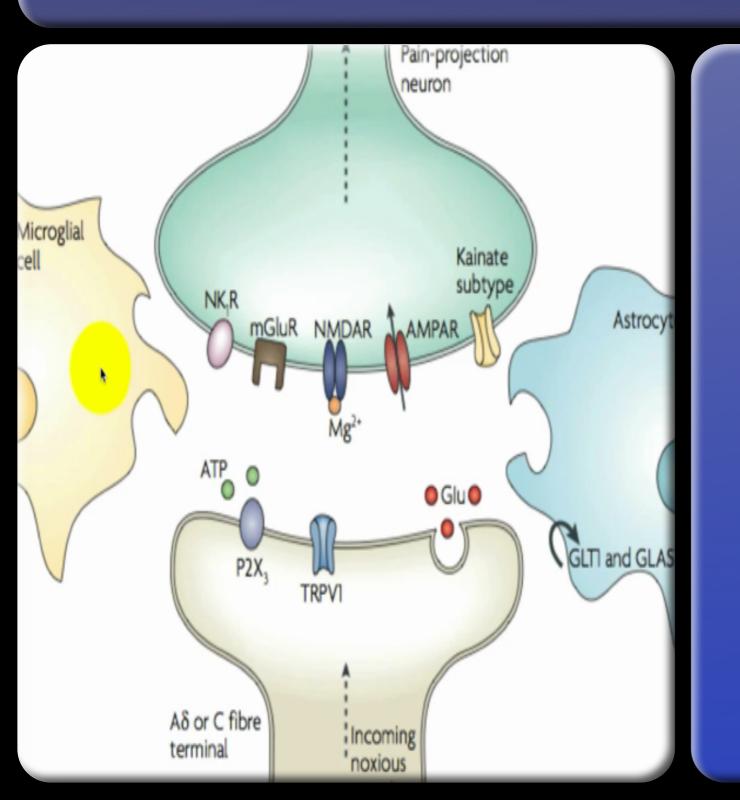
Complexity of pain pathways

Over 200 genes expressed with pain involving multiple pathways

Activation of certain gene expression with pain

Many of these genes relate to neuroimmune activation

Neuronal Transmission

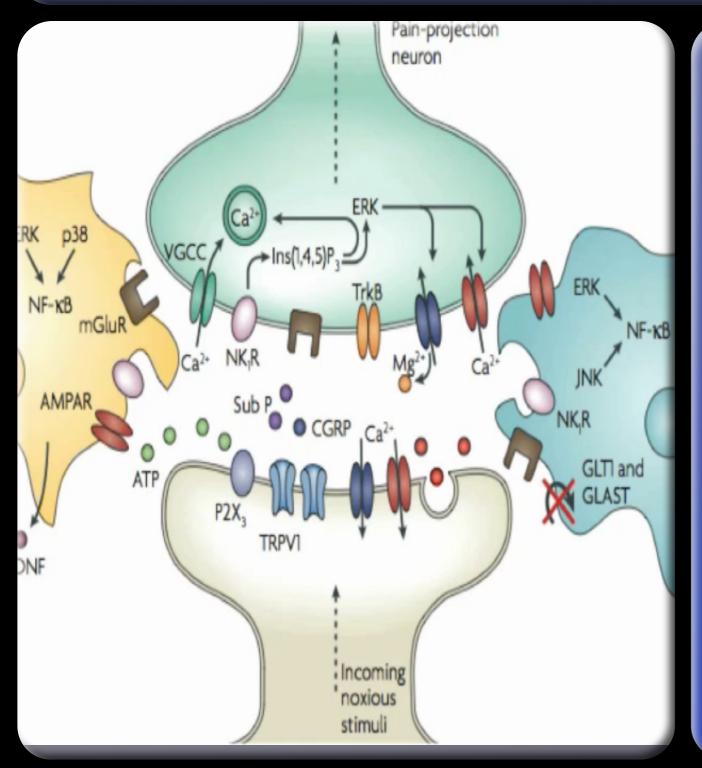


Normally requires ongoing function of astrocytes

 Microglia don't seem to do much until activated

Glutamate is main synaptic transmitter

Neuronal Transmission With Pain



- Astrocytes ●GLT/ GLAST down Microglia Inflammatory responses. Retasking of Aβ fibres Other things with pain: Presynaptic glutamate, CGRP, Substance P release
 - Post Synaptically NMDA activation via ERK

Immune activity in glia

Two sorts of immune systems
 Acquired immunity, immunoglobulins
 Innate immunity, toll like receptors (TLR)

Microglia use innate immunity signalling
 The TLR receptor is part of the endotoxin shock response.

Toll like receptors

Over 10 types of TLR's
 TLR4 - endotoxin and sepsis
 TLR2 - yeast
 TLR 7,8,9 - viral products

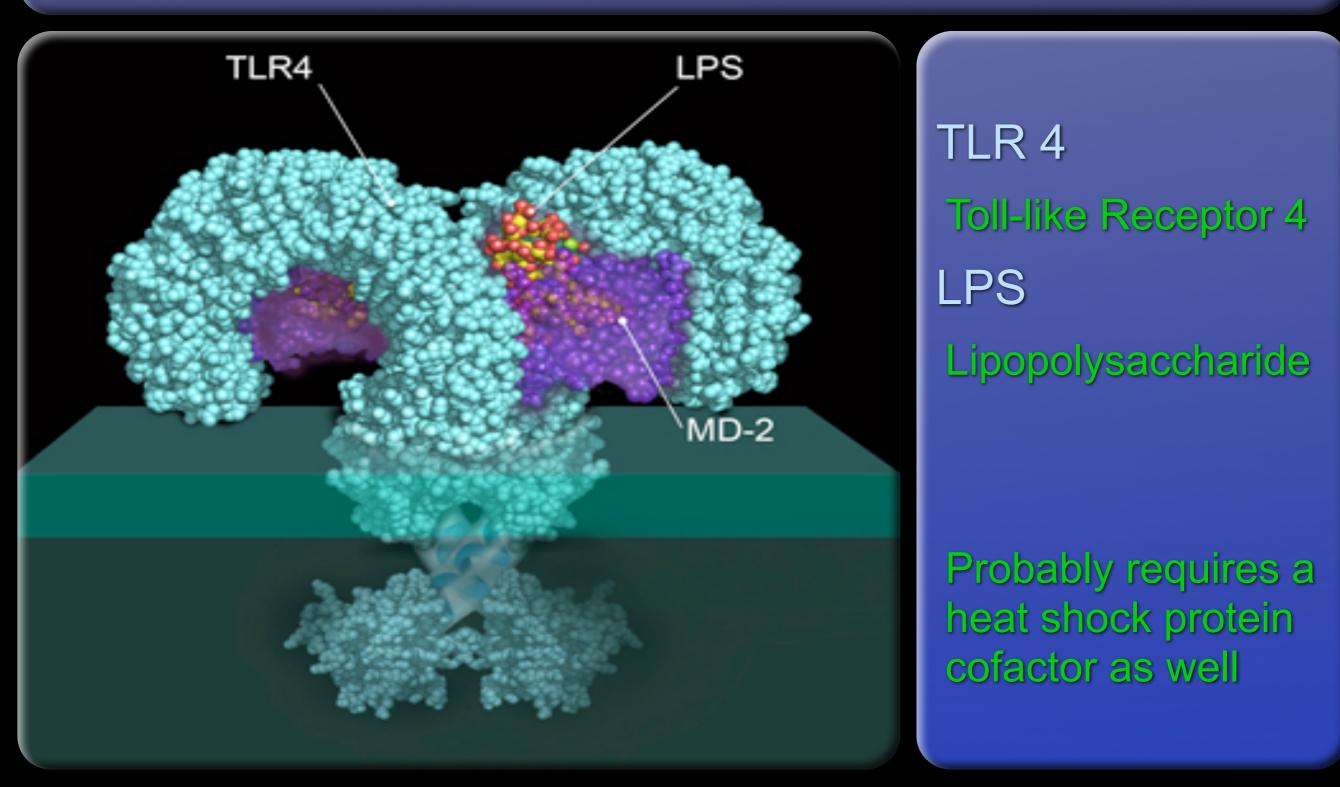
Recognise danger associated molecular patterns (DAMP's)

Things that are released by stressed cells

Eg Heat shock protiens, oxidised lipids.

Wallerian degeneration of neurons



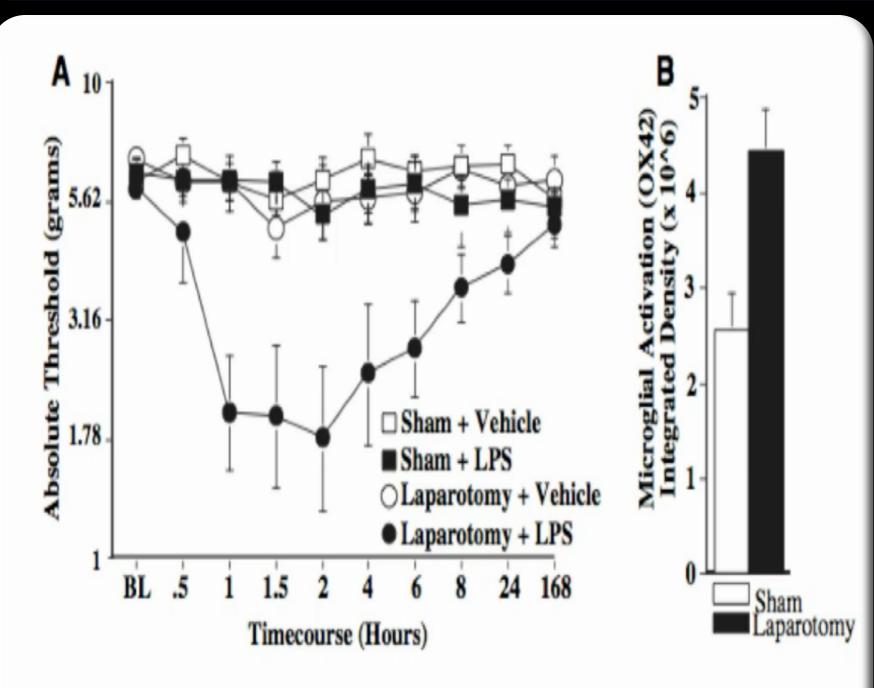


Synapses aren't simple

Pain may be initiated by nociception
 Glial activation is needed to maintain chronic pain states

Lipopolysaccharides activate glia via TLR4

Allodynia 2-hit hypothesis



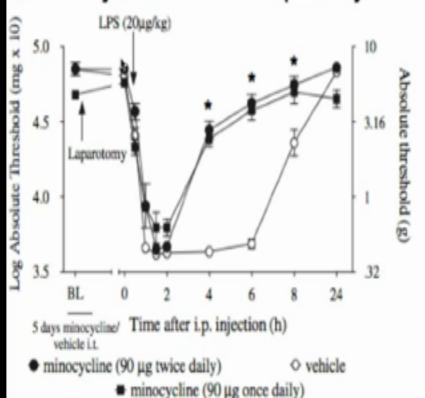
To have allodynia you need
 Nociception
 Inflammation

Hains et al, 2011

Minocycline blocks this

Minocycline at the time of laparotomy

A



B Minocycline at the time of lipopolysaccharide Laparotomy Log Absolute Threshold (mg x 10) 5.0 10 LPS (20µg/kg) 4.5 3.16 hold 4.03.5 32 BL 24 5 days minocycline/ Time after i.p. injection (h) vehicle i.t.

minocycline (90 µg once daily)
 ♦ vehicle

Hains et al, 201

Minocycline blocks microglial activation

Blocking microglia blocks allodynia (in rats)

Also, TLR4 knockout mice have less pain

In experimental animals

Table 1-Pain models associated with upregulation of spinal cord microglial and/or astrocyte activation markers

Complete Freund's adjuvant, subcutaneous Formalin, subcutaneous Phospholipase A2, subcutaneous Zymosan, subcutaneous Sciatic nerve injury (chronic constriction injury) Inferior alveolar and mental nerve transection Partial sciatic nerve ligation Sciatic nerve inflammation with zymosan Sciatic nerve inflammation with HIV-1 gp120 Sciatic nerve inflammation with phospholipase A2 Spinal nerve transection Spinal nerve root injury Spinal cord injury Hind paw incision Bone cancer HIV-1 gp120, intrathecal Lipopolysaccharide, intrathecal Chronic opioids; opioid withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia

Pretty much every pain model that produces allodynia is associated with glial activation

Modified and updated from Ledeboer et al. (2006).

In experimental animials

Table 2-Pain facilitation is suppressed or reversed by inhibition of spinal glial activation or proinflammatory cytokine actions

Model

Intervention

Mustard oil, topical Carrageenan, subcutaneous **Complete Freund's** adjuvant, subcutaneous Formalin, subcutaneous Phospholipase A2, subcutaneous Zymosan, subcutaneous Hind paw incision Inferior alveolar and mental nerve transection Sciatic nerve injury (chronic constriction injury) Sciatic nerve inflammation with zymosan Sciatic nerve inflammation with phospholipase A2 Sciatic nerve tetanic stimulation Spinal nerve transection Spinal nerve root injury Spinal cord injury HIV-1 gp120, intrathecal Lipopolysaccharide, intrathecal

Dynorphin, intrathecal

Fluorocitrate Minocycline, IL-1 knockout IL-1ra, IL-1 knockout

Fluorocitrate, IL-1ra, minocycline; IL-1 knockout Fluorocitrate, IL-1ra, sTNFR

Fluorocitrate Fluorocitrate Minocycline

IL-1ra, IL-10; IL-1 knockout

Fluorocitrate, minocycline IL-1ra, sTNFR, IL-6 antibody IL-1ra, anti-IL-6, IL-10

Fluorocitrate

Propentofylline, minocycline, IL-1ra, sTNFR, anti-IL-6, Methotrexate; IL-1 knockout IL-10, IL-1ra, minocycline Fluorocitrate, IL-1ra, sTNFR, minocycline IL-1ra

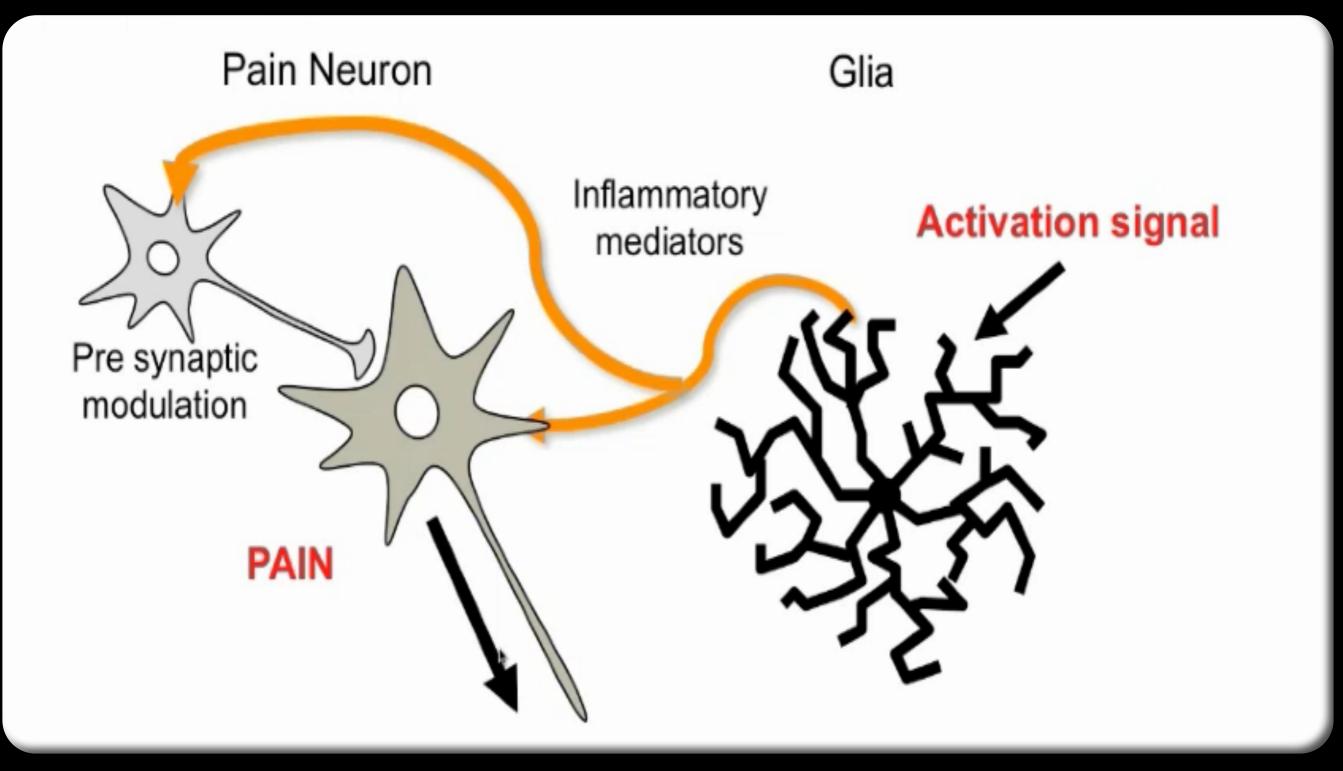
IL-1ra, IL-10 Minocycline, IL-1ra, anti-IL-6 Fractalkine, intrathecal

Abbreviations: IL-1ra, interleukin-1 receptor antagonist; sTNFR, soluble TNF receptor; IL-10, interleukin-10.

Modified and updated from Ledeboer et al. (2006). For complete references, see Clark et al. (2006), Hains and Waxman (2006), Honore et al. (2006a), Ledeboer et al. (2006), Obata et al. (2006), Piao et al. (2006), Watkins et al. (2005), and Xie et al. (2007b).

Pain facilitation is inhibited by inhibitors of spinal glial activation

Neuropathic pain pathway



Opioids and Glia

Issues with opiates

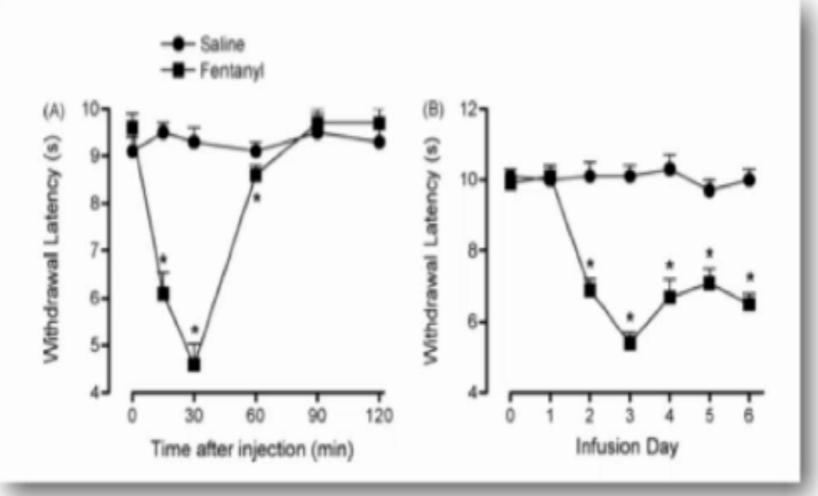
Tolerance
 Opioid induced hyperalgesia
 Addiction

Don't work well for chronic pain.



Knockout mice

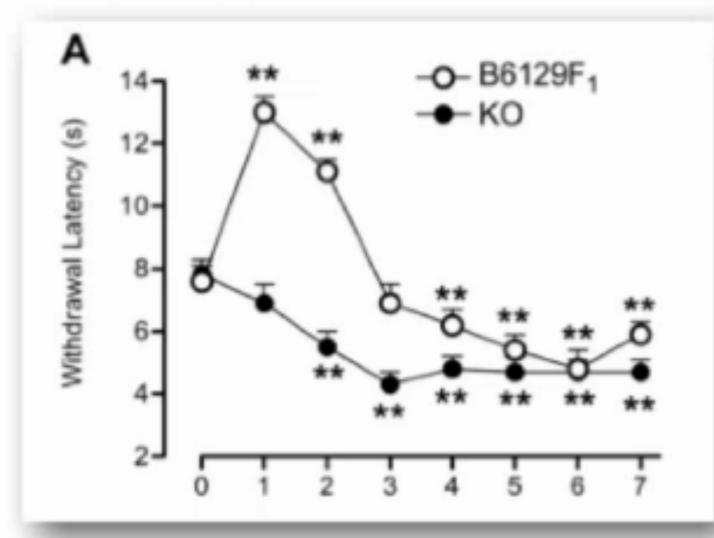
Waxman et al 2009



Triple knockout mice No DOP/MOP/KOP In these mice: Fentanyl produces hyperalgesia immediately Produces allodynia with sustained infusions

Compare with normals

Juni et al 2007



Similar with oxymorphone in knockout mice (KO)

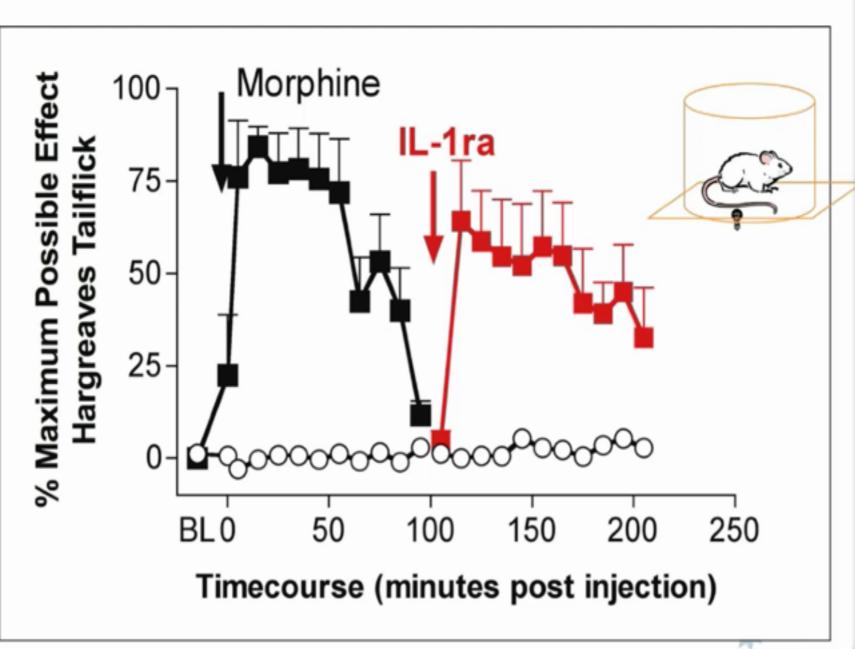
But the endpoint after a few days is identical in wild mice

Net effect of this

Opioids antagonise their own actions

Initial response is still analgesia
 Subsequent response is allodynia

Blocking IL1 restores analgesia

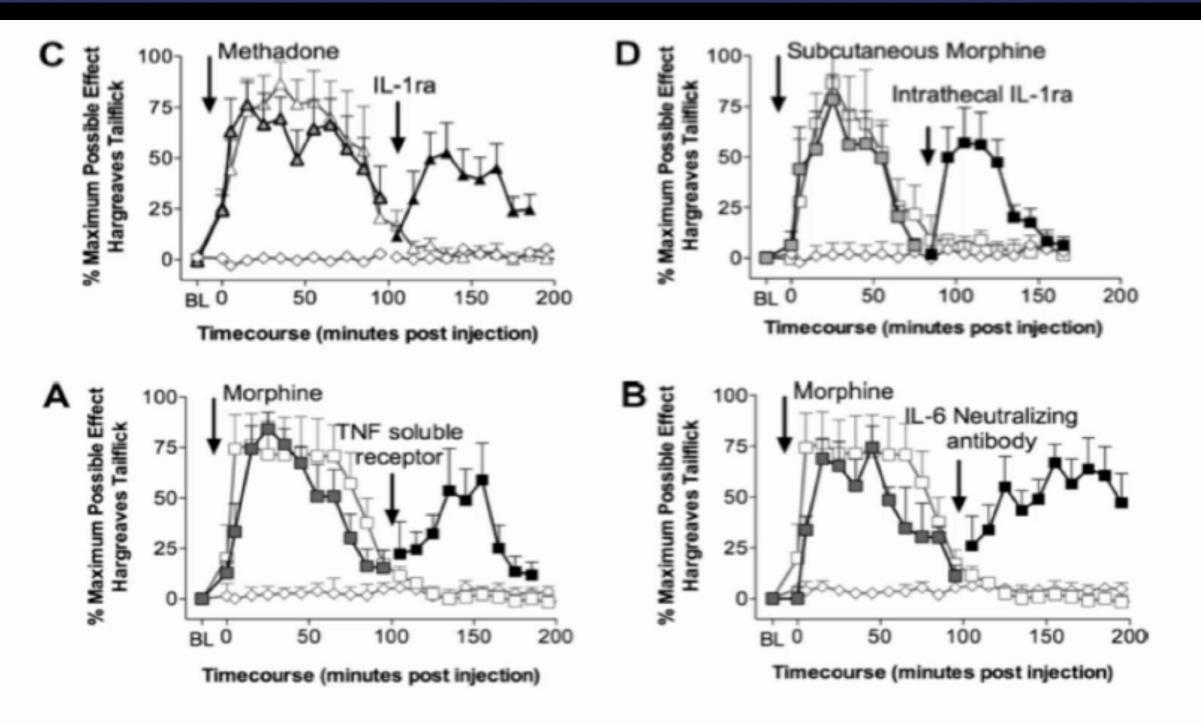


Morphine antagonises its own action

The mechanism for antagonism isn't via opiate receptors

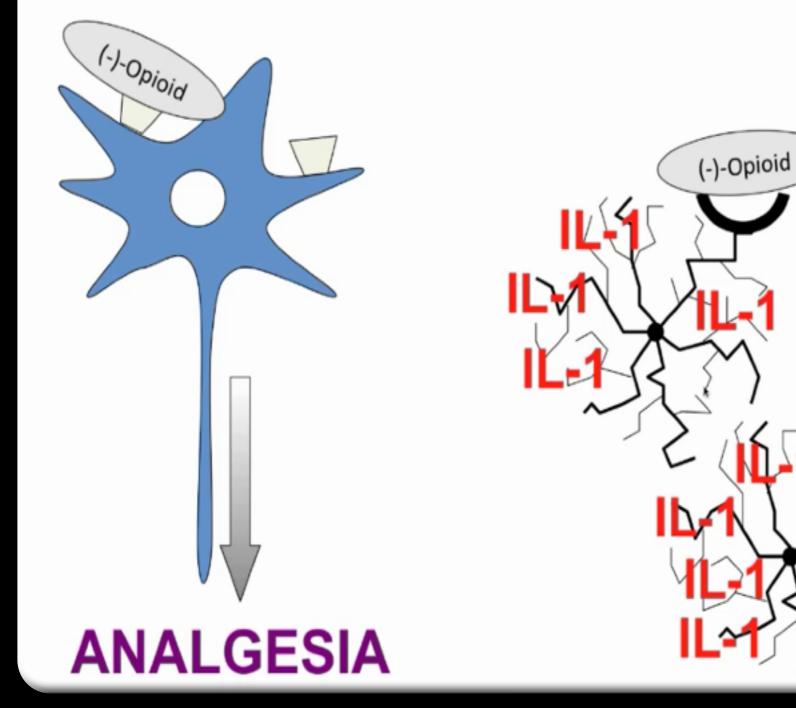
Hutchinson et al 2008

Its not just morphine and IL-1



Hutchinson et al 2008

Dual effect



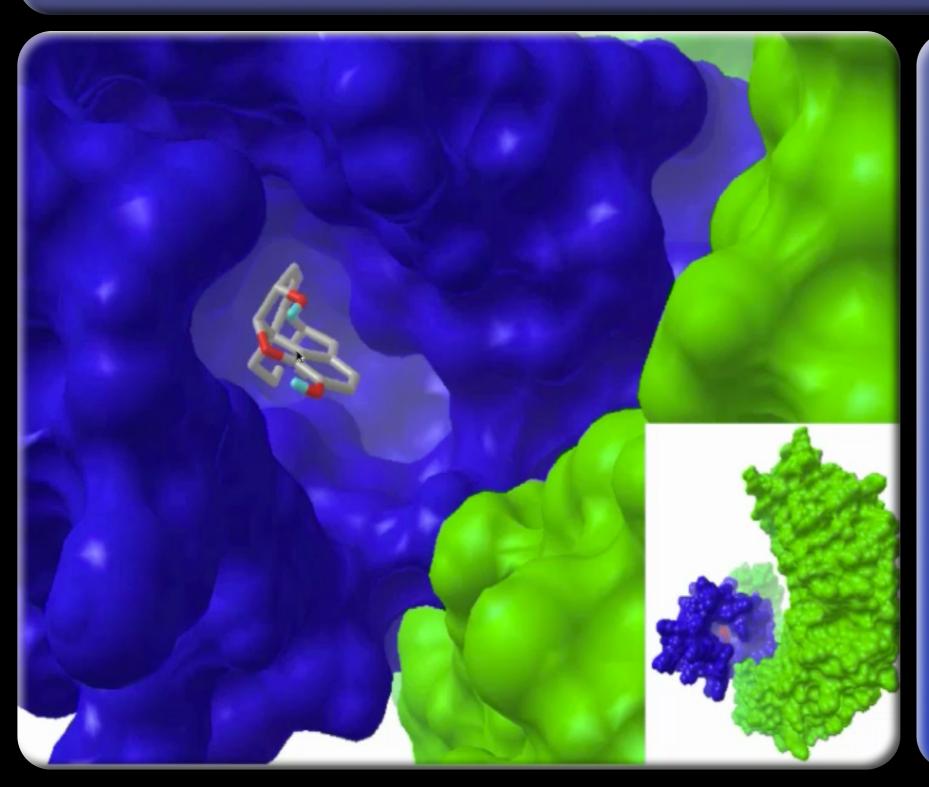
At the same time that opioids are acting on neurons, they are acting on glial cells.

But how do opiates do this

Appears to be related to the toll like receptors

Even more interesting, this can be blocked

Morphine and TLR-4



Morphine binds the same site as LPS in the MD2 accessory protein to TLR-4

Chronic Pain Management

Multipronged treatment strategy

Biological

- Pharmacological
- Physical
- Interventional
- Psychological
- Social

Pharmacological Therapies

Gabapentinoids

Pregabalin, Gabapentin Binds to voltage dependent calcium channel Decreases Glutamate, NorAdr, Substance P and Calcitonin Significant side effects Dizziness and drowsiness Weight gain

Tricyclic Antidepressants

Amitriptyline, Nortriptyline

- Inhibit Serotonin and Noradrenaline reuptake
- Some inhibition of Serotonin, Histamine, muscarinic, alpha adrenergic and dopaminergic receptors
- Significant side effects

Anticholinergic effects most common

Tramadol

- Combined µ, Serotonin and Nor adrenergic agnonist
 - Effective against acute and chronic pain
- Low addition potential
- Side effects common (esp N+V, sweating)



- Tapendatol (µ agonist and NorAdr reuptake inhibition)
 - Like tramadol without sertonergic side effects
 - Still a schedule 8 drug
 - Currently only in slow release form

Mu (µ, MOR) agonists

All have very little benefit in chronic pain
Almost no benefit versus placebo
Significant problems
Tolerance, dependence
Addiction
Opioid induced hyperalgesia

Drug	Condition	NNT	NNH
Opioids	Neuropathic Pain	2.5	4.2-8.3
Tramadol	Neuropathic Pain Post surgical Pain	3.4 2.4-4.8	8.3
Tricyclics	Neuropathic Pain	3.6	6 (minor) 28 (major)
Gabapentinoids	Central Neuropathic pain Diabetic Neuropathy Post Herpetic Neuralgia Fibromyalgia	5 2.9-5 3.9 13-22	3.7
Venlafaxime Duloxitine	Neuropathic Pain	3.1 6-8	9.6 (minor) 16.2 (major)
Paracetamol	Chronic Arthritic Pain	4-5	12 (GI s/e)

Clinical Principles

Acute inflammatory / Nociceptive pain Paracetamol & NSAID's for inflammatory pain Tramadol and Opiates for more severe pain Chronic / Neuropathic pain Gabapentinoids, SNRI's and TCA's Tramadol Avoid opioids if possible, Buphrenorphine best



Pain

Definitions Physiology Pharmacology

Chronic Pain

Pathophysiology Pharmacology